

7-1-1972

# A Study of the Differences in P Power and S Power in Three Populations: Inpatient Alcoholics, Non-Alcoholics and Alcoholics Anonymous Members

Bryan Carter

*Western Kentucky University*

Follow this and additional works at: <http://digitalcommons.wku.edu/theses>



Part of the [Psychology Commons](#), and the [Substance Abuse and Addiction Commons](#)

---

## Recommended Citation

Carter, Bryan, "A Study of the Differences in P Power and S Power in Three Populations: Inpatient Alcoholics, Non-Alcoholics and Alcoholics Anonymous Members" (1972). *Masters Theses & Specialist Projects*. Paper 993.  
<http://digitalcommons.wku.edu/theses/993>

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by TopSCHOLAR®. It has been accepted for inclusion in Masters Theses & Specialist Projects by an authorized administrator of TopSCHOLAR®. For more information, please contact [connie.foster@wku.edu](mailto:connie.foster@wku.edu).

WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY  
ARCHIVES

A STUDY OF THE DIFFERENCES IN P POWER AND S POWER  
IN THREE POPULATIONS:  
INPATIENT ALCOHOLICS, NON-ALCOHOLICS AND  
ALCOHOLICS ANONYMOUS MEMBERS

A Thesis  
Presented to  
the Faculty of the Department of Psychology  
Western Kentucky University  
Bowling Green, Kentucky

In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Arts

by  
Bryan D. Carter  
July 1972

A STUDY OF THE DIFFERENCES IN P POWER AND S POWER  
IN THREE POPULATIONS:  
INPATIENT ALCOHOLICS, NON-ALCOHOLICS AND  
ALCOHOLICS ANONYMOUS MEMBERS

APPROVED 8/8/72 :  
(Date)

Philip A. T. [unclear]  
Director of Thesis  
[unclear]  
R.L. Miller

[unclear]  
Dean of the Graduate School

## Abstract

Samples from three populations, Alcoholics Anonymous members, inpatient alcoholics and non-alcoholics, were compared for the level of manifestation of the need for socialized power and personalized power. The comparison of these groups on a Q sort technique developed for this study indicated that the sample of Alcoholics Anonymous members was significantly higher in the need for socialized power than either the sample of inpatient alcoholics or the sample of non-alcoholics. The level of socialized power concern of the inpatient alcoholic group did not differ significantly from that of the non-alcoholic group. The inpatient alcoholic group was found to be significantly higher in the need for personalized power than either the Alcoholics Anonymous sample or the non-alcoholic sample. The non-alcoholic group and the Alcoholics Anonymous group did not show a significant difference in the level of personalized power concern. The Alcoholics Anonymous group showed a significantly greater concern for socialized power over personalized power, as did the non-alcoholic sample. No significant difference between personalized power concerns and socialized power concerns was found for the inpatient alcoholic group.

## Table of Contents

	Page
Review of the Literature . . . . .	1
Relationship of Various Personality Theories to the Constructs of pPower and sPower . . . . .	11
Statement of Problem . . . . .	24
Method . . . . .	25
Results . . . . .	38
Discussion . . . . .	46
References . . . . .	54
Appendix A . . . . .	60
Appendix B . . . . .	77
Appendix C . . . . .	79
Appendix D . . . . .	81
Appendix E . . . . .	82
Appendix F . . . . .	87
Appendix G . . . . .	89

## Review of the Literature

### Characteristics of nPower

Nearly every serious student of psychology has familiarized himself with David McClelland and his work with a particular human motive, the need to achieve; technically referred to as nAchievement. More recently McClelland and some of his co-workers (Davis, 1966, 1966a; Kalin, 1966, 1966a) have directed their efforts toward exploring another important human need, the need for power (nPower).

In his work with nAchievement, McClelland (1970) was confronted with a case where a score of zero in nAchievement was obtained by the president of one of the most successful achievement-oriented firms he had been studying. McClelland had thought that requisite to the attainment of such a high organizational position was a high need to achieve. This, and other significant incidents, prompted McClelland (1970) to hypothesize that an individual who is proficient in instilling achievement motivation in others may possess different skills and motives than the desire to satisfy his own need to achieve. It was in a completely different area of research, on the effects of alcohol on fantasy, that McClelland was to identify this evasive

motive.

In an investigation into the changes in fantasy of subjects under the influence of alcohol, McClelland (1971) employed a projective technique consisting of pictures resembling those of the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). It was found that power thoughts in the stories which the subjects devised increased regularly with the amount of alcohol consumed. Thus, the effect of the alcohol was to increase the frequency of power themes in the stories which the subjects constructed to the stimulus pictures. Such findings are somewhat incongruous with the explanations supplied by psychoanalysts who, according to McClelland (1971), contend that the drinking man is escaping into the security characteristic of the nursing infant and his life of passive dependency.

In later research in this area McClelland (1971) and his associates found that the consumption of small quantities of alcohol brought about an increase in the frequency of power imagery in stories which were of a more socialized nature while thoughts of more personalized or primitive forms of power were aroused by the consumption of larger quantities of alcohol. They asserted that this personalized power was concerned with dominance over others and labeled it "pPower." The label "sPower," or socialized power, was utilized in referring to the tendency to manifest power for the welfare of others.

In a comparative study of cultures (McClelland, Davis

& Kalin, 1966b), the content of representative folktales from different cultures was analyzed for particular concepts that were then tallied as to frequency of occurrence. The frequency of occurrence of these concepts in the folktale content of each cultural unit was compared with the combined Drinking Rating (Bacon, Barry, Child & Snyder, 1956), which was the sum of the Frequency of Drunkenness and General Consumption, for that particular society. The basic finding of this study (McClelland, et al., 1966b) was that "sober societies were better organized, hierarchical, solidary, often agricultural and settled communities which gave wide and strong support to a man and which stressed inhibition and respect [p. 331]." A society in which one would expect to find a high incidence of drinking would generally be one that conflictingly requires a man to be assertive, yet obedient, and is not supportive. McClelland reasons that for a member of this second type of society, alcohol is a means of being powerful in a primitive and non-instrumental way and of obtaining at least a temporary source of strength to meet these needs. Although this particular study did not differentiate between pPower and sPower, it is significant in that it sheds light on the concept of nPower in relation to whole societies and cultures.

Further research into the effects of alcohol consumption (McClelland, 1970) indicated that nPower is satisfied in different ways by different individuals. McClelland



(1970), citing a study by Winter (1967), relates that students with a high need for power (nPower) either became organizational officers or engaged in heavy drinking, though they usually did not engage in both behaviors. It was further deduced that persons whose thoughts center on their need for sPower tend to satisfy these needs through activities such as holding offices, whereas individuals whose predominant thoughts were of personal dominance over others (pPower) tended toward excessive drinking or other "acting out" behaviors such as driving fast and powerful cars or engaging in frequent sexual conquests.

McClelland (1971) and his co-workers have developed a means for predicting heavy drinking behavior in others. This method, based upon obtaining a p-s-Power score, has been moderately successful in its predictability, yielding correlations in the .40's. This system was developed from studies using older men whose drinking histories were checked against stories told in response to the above mentioned projective pictures under conditions of sobriety. Of the men who reported heavy drinking practices, over two-thirds of them gave imaginative stories which were high in personal power imagery and low in level of inhibition. Contrastingly, heavy drinking was associated with only 17 percent of the men whose fantasies were low in personal power imagery. Generally it was found that high pPower scores were associated with heavy drinking and high sPower scores were associated with light drinking.

Inconsistent with the literature of social psychology and political science were the findings of Winter (1967); in McClelland (1970). Winter exposed groups of business school students to a film of John F. Kennedy's Inaugural Address and subsequently had them write imaginative stories in the usual manner. Winter expected to find themes of submission, following, obedience, or loyalty; such findings would be consonant with the reports of political and social scientists. Instead, Winter found that the students felt more powerful and were apparently strengthened and uplifted by the film as indicated by an increase in the frequency of power themes in the stories they wrote. In no case did he find that the subjects felt less powerful or submissive. Therefore, it can be inferred that the effective leader exerts his influence by strengthening and inspiring his followers rather than by the popular contention that his overwhelming personality and his persuasive ability forces them to submit to and follow him. The effective leader must possess high sPower, not the primitive pPower motivated behavior. As McClelland (1970) states, "slaves are the poorest, most inefficient form of labor devised by man. If a leader wants to have far-reaching influence, he must make his followers feel powerful and able to accomplish things on their own [p. 417]." In essence, the effective leader increases the degree of sPower need in his followers so that they feel better equipped to accomplish the common goals they share. It seems very unlikely

that a high pPower individual would be an effective leader, especially if he was low in nAchievement.

McClelland (1971, 1972) has stressed that the pPower need is manifested in various individualized ways. From a therapeutic standpoint then, it may be of value to transform the alcoholic's high pPower need to the more socially acceptable high sPower need which can be manifested as a concern on the behalf of others. It is his contention that the organization of Alcoholics Anonymous does just this by its strong emphasis on the yielding of assistance by the former alcoholic to the current alcoholic. Alcoholics Anonymous would thus serve as a therapeutic agent by socializing the alcoholic's personal power drive.

Ullman and Krasner (1969) contend that Alcoholics Anonymous derives its effectiveness from the controlled social reinforcement available to the recovering alcoholic. Such behaviors as participation in group discussions, showing concern and care for others, and general social fraternization are intermittently followed by group approval and social reinforcement which increases the frequency of such behaviors. The Alcoholics Anonymous member is always available to assist another member, or even a non-member, in dealing with certain critical periods of insobriety or personal distress. He thus acquires new behavioral roles which lead to strong social reinforcement. The receptive alcoholic is therefore able to overcome his strong pPower needs through the presence

of active models who have undergone such change themselves and who also serve as sources of reinforcement for his more appropriate socialized behaviors (London & Rosenhan, 1968).

It is also McClelland's (1972) belief that religion, as well as the spiritual emphasis characteristic of Alcoholics Anonymous, serves to socialize the individual's personal power need and redirect it along more socially acceptable and appropriate lines.

In a study by Williams, McCourt and Schneider (1971), heavy drinkers and alcoholics were compared on a variety of tests of personality characteristics. Tests utilized in this investigation included a quantity-frequency index of drinking, the Preoccupation-with-Alcohol Scale designed by Mulford and the Kalin Personality Test which is composed of one hundred items selected from the California Psychological Inventory, the Omnibus Personality Inventory and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. Although the pPower and sPower constructs were not investigated in this study, the results appear somewhat relevant. It was generally found that both of these groups of individuals scored in the same direction on the utilized tests. These findings were elaborated in an attempt to identify a heavy drinking syndrome which precludes alcoholism. One of the major implications of this study is that it suggests that particular personality characteristics are antecedent to the development of alcoholism rather than being the result of a pattern of prolonged excessive drinking. Both of

these groups scored in a direction indicating anti-social and dominant behavior, aggressive sociability and impulsivity. It is interesting to note the similarity between the identified personality variables related to heavy drinking and the attributes of persons manifesting a high pPower need. There would appear to be a significant degree of similarity.

Lawlis and Rubin (1971) conducted a study in which the 16 Personality Factor questionnaire, Form A, was administered to a population of hospitalized alcoholics. Intercorrelations of these personality traits were factor analyzed and three distinct factors emerged, two of which are of interest for this study: The sociopathic syndrome and the aggressive neurotic syndrome. It would appear that many of the characteristics of these two personality types would fall in the category of pPower characteristics.

Reiter (1970), utilizing the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, found that heavy drinkers had generally higher scores on those scales measuring hostile and aggressive needs as well as dominance, than they did on the other scales. A similar study by Fitzgerald, Paserwark and Tanner (1967) found these same patterns with hospitalized alcoholics.

Numerous studies have been conducted in an attempt to develop an "alcoholic" scale for the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). In their efforts to develop such a scale, Hoyt and Sedlacek (1958) found that the Pd

scale (psychopathic deviate) was consistently the highest peaked scale for the alcoholics; often accompanied by a high D (depression) scale elevation. MacAndrew and Geertsma (1963) obtained similar findings in their study, although they attributed this to the fact that alcoholics persistently admit that they use alcohol excessively, have gotten into trouble with the law, and have not lived the right kind of life, all of which tend to elevate scale Pd significantly. In any event, it is interesting to note the resemblance of the personality description of the high Pd individual and the individual with a high pPower need.

To date there has been relatively little success in the overall efforts to delineate a distinct alcoholic personality type (Syme, 1957; Allen & Dootjes, 1968). But with the advent of McClelland's investigation into the nature of nPower the future appears somewhat more promising than before.

In summary, McClelland's research indicates that there are two basic forms of nPower. One is a socialized form of power, sPower, and it manifests itself in a "concern for group goals, for finding the group goals that will move men; for taking some initiative in providing members of the group with the means of achieving such goals, and for giving group members the feeling of strength and competence they need to work hard for such goals [McClelland, 1970, p. 417]." This is the more constructive form of nPower that humans exhibit. The more primitive face of

power is manifested in strivings for dominance over others who must assume a submissive role. McClelland (1970) describes this power need as leading "to fairly simple direct means of feeling powerful such as drinking heavily, acquiring 'prestige supplies', and being aggressive [p. 417]."

## Relationship of Various Personality Theories to the Constructs of pPower and sPower

There are several theories of personality which would appear to provide a theoretical model for explaining the personality attributes associated with the needs for personalized and socialized power. These constructs will be discussed from the viewpoints of McClelland, Adler, Freud and Horney.

Although McClelland has not yet devoted a great deal of time to the discussion of the etiology of these motives, they can be cast in the same acquisition model used to explain nAchievement (McClelland, 1953). It is McClelland's contention that a motive is learned as a result of the pairing of cues with a state of affective arousal or with the accompanying conditions which evoked the emotional arousal. Put more simply, a motive develops whenever certain cues arouse in an individual the anticipation of some change in state that will result in a change in the level of either pain or pleasure (Maddi, 1968). The cues which eventually become associated with the affective arousal may have initially been a product of the response to the emotional change evoked or they may have been unconnected with this arousal. The affect that is evoked



is a result of the disparity between the individual's expectations of the situation and his perception of the situation. Relatively small discrepancies from the adaptation level of the organism result in positive affective change. Negative affect results when the discrepancy between expectation and perception of the situation is relatively large. A significant stimulus change immediately produces a change in the organism's affective state. The motive is acquired only if the stimulus change, or the situation producing this change, has been associated with such affect in the past. Thus, when an individual experiences small discrepancies between his expectations and his perception of the situation, he approaches, or brings himself in closer proximity to, the general area of experience which is involved (Maddi, 1968). A large discrepancy between expectation and perception of the situation will evoke an avoidance response to the area of experience involved. Maddi (1968) contends that the degree of discrepancy between expectation and perception of the situation is the central element of McClelland's theory.

McClelland (1953) contends that the simple repetition of the experience, i.e. association, is what produces learned expectancies. Cues, previously associated with an affective state, arouse anticipation of affective changes (motive). This anticipation is somewhat pleasurable (or painful) itself. The organism has learned from past experience to make instrumental approach

responses (or avoidance responses) which will result in pleasure (or pain). Thus we can say that an individual has acquired a motive when, while experiencing affect, he anticipates additional affective change which is contingent upon particular instrumental responses.

Let us now apply this model of need acquisition to the development of a high sPower need in an individual. An individual who is in the process of acquiring a high need for socialized power would most often experience social interaction in situations in which his expectations differ only a small degree from his perceptions of the situation, e.g., when he attempts to assist and direct others to better themselves and experiences gratification in so doing. Thus his expectations are not so greatly disconfirmed that he becomes discouraged and begins to avoid such situations. But, just as important, he is not so accurate in his predictions that boredom takes place. Caring parents may help provide the child with gradations of such experiences which will accumulate until the need to exert one's influence on the behalf of others (sPower) becomes a lifelong striving, or motive. Thus, whenever a situation arises in which this individual has the opportunity to help and provide assistance to others (cues), the cognitive image of the pleasurable emotional consequences of this behavior will lead him to anticipate a further change in affect causing him to approach the situation and behave as he has in the past (instrumental

behavior). Approach behavior has been assimilated as a result of the accumulation of many pleasant emotional experiences in this area of functioning. This person has learned to anticipate pleasant affective experiences in response to his approach behaviors whenever particular contiguous cues are present (Maddi, 1968).

Theoretically, the development of a high pPower need could follow the same model as for the high sPower need individual. Competitive social interaction may have been experienced in situations in which there was only slight disparity between the person's expectations and the perceived occurrence. Aggressive and dominant behavior may have resulted in perceived responses from others which were only slightly different than the individual's expectations had lead him to predict. Such behavioral experiences may have been purposively provided by misguided parents or may have been accumulated in the person's peer relationships. Whenever a situation arises in which the individual may behave in an aggressive and domineering manner, the cognitive image of the pleasurable emotional consequences of this behavior leads him to anticipate a further change in affect causing him to approach the situation in this characteristic behavioral attitude.

Such behavior is not necessarily deviant if the pPower need is satisfied through socially acceptable channels, e.g., athletic competition. It is possible that such behavior becomes maladaptive only when it is accompanied

by an avoidance response to any behavior which is socially constructive. Such an individual's predominant experience may have been with parents and peers who were highly inconsistent and unpredictable. Whenever a situation arose where he had the opportunity to behave in a helpful and caring way he was confronted with perceived occurrences which greatly disconfirmed his expectations. Over time he learned to avoid such behavior in interpersonal situations and behave only in the manner which has lead to pleasurable emotional experiences in the past, i.e., pPower oriented behavior. It is the development of such an avoidance motive which leads to the individual's ineffective and obsessional pPower behaviors (Maddi, 1968). The goals produced by such avoidance behavior are usually unrealistic and accompanied by obsessional preoccupations with goal satisfaction. Such an avoidance motive becomes associated with cues which signal impending threat and dissatisfaction to the individual and may lead to alternate modes of compensatory behavior, one being the enhancement of personal power feelings through the consumption of large quantities of alcohol.

As mentioned earlier, McClelland (1971, 1972) believes that the need for personalized power can be converted to the more appropriate need for socialized power. It would appear that any attempt to socialize an individual's high pPower need would involve a change in the response to any sPower behaviors he may exhibit. A new association

would have to be made between the anticipation of additional affectual change (more pleasurable) and the person's socially concerned behaviors.

It is quite obvious from the above discussion of p and sPower from McClelland's (1953) need-acquisition model that certain similarities exist between his approach and the behavioral theory point of view as presented by Skinner (1953) or the social learning approach of Bandura and Walters (1963). Because of the possible redundancy of such a discussion it will be left up to the reader.

The Viennese psychiatrist, Alfred Adler, developed a system he called "Individual Psychology" which has as its main concern the manner in which the unique individual behaves in response to the fluctuating patterns of life (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1964).

It was Adler's (1966) assumption that all mans' Strivings originate from his pressing struggle to overcome his real or imagined deficiencies and ineptitudes and that each and every character trait is an extension or an elaboration of this innate striving for superiority. Adler felt that our present day culture and family structure overemphasized the attainment of superiority over others as the ideal of perfection. In almost every instance it is through the parents' own desires to dominate that the child attains the goal of the achievement of power and dominance over others as the driving force in his life (Adler, 1966). It was to this pathological

striving for personal power that Adler (1966) attributed many of the social ills of our society, including alcoholism. Adler (1964) had this to say in relation to the personalized power oriented individual: "When we are dealing with pathological power drive we find individuals who seek to secure their positions in life with extraordinary efforts, with greater haste and impatience, with more violent impulses, and without consideration for anyone else [p. 107]." He goes on to relate that "such a power oriented person may desire to conquer everyone at any price [p. 107]."

Adler (1956) also viewed certain forms of over-compensation as presenting an abnormal striving to overcome inferiority feelings. When inferiority feelings become so intense that the child fears an ineptitude in compensating for his weaknesses, there is the risk that he will not be satisfied with a mere restoration of the balance of power. In such a case he may tend to over-compensate to the point where his strivings for power and dominance become pathological.

Adler (1966) relates that the striving for personal power was an outgrowth of the evolutionary striving for perfection. The extreme pressures exerted on the individual by society and civilization served as constant reminders of his inferiority and only brutal dominance of the weaker individuals seemed to alleviate or diminish these feelings.

Dreikurs (1953), in discussing the nature of the manifestation of the power drive, relates that once an individual has acquired a strong need for personal power he appears to function in terms of the probability of attaining successful completion in a particular situation. If the probability is high that he will be successful he may work hard to maintain his superiority. If there is only a moderate chance of his being successful, he may shift to an activity which offers him a higher probability. In relation to the need for personal power and the abuse of alcohol, Dreikurs (1953) states that "if there is no chance ... according to his own evaluation of the situation ... to be the first by useful achievement, he may shift to the useless side and become the 'worst,' either by misbehavior, drinking, gambling or illness [p. 497]."

It was also Adler's contention that man is inherently a social being and is motivated primarily by social urges (Hall & Lindsey, 1970). Ideally, strivings for superiority should be pursued with regard to the norms of social interest (Adler, 1964).

The child is inoculated with the rudiments of social interest by the atmosphere created by his parents and the child rearing environment. Through proper parental guidance he develops a keen level of social interest which has as its goal significant contributions to society and an ability to cooperate in the development of a perfect society or cultural group (Adler, 1964).

Thus the individual's strivings for superiority have become socialized and the ideal of a perfect society has taken the place of purely personal ambition and selfish gain. This is in complete opposition to the individual who manifests a strong personalized power need and who attempts to overcome his innate inferiority feelings without adequate regard for social interest. Individual Psychology would therefore conclude that the individual who has developed a pathological need for personalized power is striving for superiority against fellowmanship.

The historical roots of the development of social interest are basic to the cooperative nature of human society. Man, because of his evolutionary nature, has been forced to rely upon mutual cooperation and obligation in his social relationships (Adler, 1966). Such social instincts and "social feelings" have led to man's survival as a species of living creature and have made him dependent upon his complex system of division of labor and responsibility.

Freud (1961) depicted man as an innately aggressive organism, one form of which could be a personal or primitive form of power. From the orthodox psychoanalytic viewpoint, man is not a peace-loving and gentle creature whose only aggressive actions are self-defensive in nature. Rather, men are "creatures among whose instinctual endowments is to be reckoned a powerful share of aggression [p. 58]."



In a recounting of many of the social atrocities through history, Freud relates that man's savage and brutal aggression is often spontaneously released when it goes unchecked by the regulating psychic counter-forces. Freud's later writings proposed that these intense aggressive tendencies arose out of the death instinct (Buss, 1968), which seeks to reduce the tensions produced by life by returning to the tensionless state of death. If the individual succumbs to the intense forces of the death instinct, all aggression is experienced intrapunitively and results in strong masochistic and suicidal tendencies. Normally this instinct manifests itself as direct outward aggression. It is the strong erotic and self-preservative instincts which prevent the death instinct from prevailing in most persons (Storr, 1968). As a result of the blocking effects of these strong instincts, the natural expression of death is inhibited or displaced and is expressed as a general aggression against the world and other people in particular. From a Freudian orientation, then, an individual with a strong personalized power need would be characterized as manifesting a strong degree of displaced aggression arising out of an intense death instinct.

It is within a small minority of society that Freud (1961) contends we can find those individuals who manage to adequately control these innate aggressive urges. Through complex mental transfigurations these persons are able to become independent of their personal power

strivings and develop a concern for others and a desire to love as well as be loved, familiar sPower need characteristics. This intricate process enables a self-seeking and aggressive creature to be transformed into an indiscriminately loving and happy being. Other individuals may rely upon effective sublimation as a means of overcoming their innate aggressive impulses.

The explanation for the ego-displacement of this innate aggression lies in mans' evolutionary history (Freud, 1961). During the dawn of mans' development he came to realize the practical advantages of cooperation and communal living in terms of work efficiency, self-protection and survival, and genital gratification. His membership in the group depended to a large extent upon his cooperative ability. The function of ego-displacement of mans' innate savage aggression was to thereby enable him to maintain his acceptance and participation in the social group and reap its advantages. It should be understood that such an alteration of aggression is not always completely effective in maintaining those relationships which are necessary for the stabilization of a culture.

Fenichel (1945), a contemporary orthodox psychoanalyst, in discussing character defenses against anxiety, relates that "those who strive passionately for power or prestige are unconsciously frightened persons trying to overcome and to deny their anxiety [p. 479]." It is his contention that this unconscious striving for power is a

counterphobic reaction or a simple reaction formation in response to active anxiety. It is important to note that he is talking about people in whom the striving for power is very strong.

The ego psychology variation of psychoanalytic theory proposed by Karen Horney (1937) provides an additional model for conceptualizing the constructs of p and sPower as personality variables. In Horney's system, abnormal strivings for personal power or superiority develop when the individual has been unable to obtain reassurance for his subjective anxiety through the attainment of affection. When an individual experiences the frequent arousal of feelings of anxiety, hatred and inferiority, he may often obtain reassurance by fortifying his personal position and loosening his interpersonal relationships. Thus the pathological power need becomes the person's basic defense against anxiety and serves as a channel for the discharge of his repressed anger and hostility. These power strivings become a form of protection against feelings of inadequacy and insignificance; much the same way that Fenichel (1945) describes in the counterphobic reaction, and replace these feelings with an irrational ideal of strength. The person begins to believe that he should be able to master any situation that confronts him at the instant it occurs and experiences feelings of fear and disgrace at the thought of acknowledging any weakness he possesses. His tendency to domineer thus acts as a form of reassurance

against his underlying feelings of helplessness (Horney, 1937).

In terms of Horney's (1945) three strategems of interpersonal interaction, the individual with a pathological personal power drive would most likely be classified as manifesting a "moving against-assertive" interpersonal approach. The high sPower need individual might be classified as "moving toward" in his interpersonal approach.

## Statement of Problem

The literature is devoid of any references in which the differences in pPower and sPower in active alcoholics and Alcoholics Anonymous members have been investigated. In the present study a Q sort instrument was developed to provide a measure of the constructs being investigated. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the change in nPower effected by the organization of Alcoholics Anonymous that has been hypothesized by McClelland (1971, 1972).

The present study utilized three existing populations and compared representative samples from these populations on the level of manifestation of the pPower and sPower personality variables. It was hypothesized that members of Alcoholics Anonymous would score significantly higher on sPower than new inpatients on a hospital ward for alcoholics. Secondly it was hypothesized that new inpatients on a ward for alcoholics would score higher on pPower than men in a non-alcoholic population. The confirmation of these hypotheses would support the previous findings indicating that alcoholics have a higher pPower need than most non-alcoholics, and strengthen the hypothesis that Alcoholics Anonymous rehabilitates its members through socialization of their pathological personal power drives.

## Method

### Subjects

Ss were obtained from three existing populations. Twenty-two male Ss were obtained from a regional state mental hospital. Each S was asked by the ward alcohol coordinator to participate in the study but no one was forced to undergo testing against will. These individuals were inpatient alcoholics (IA) who voluntarily enrolled in a three week program aimed at the intensive rehabilitation of active alcoholics. At the time of testing the Ss had only recently begun the rehabilitation program. All Ss had been given a diagnosis of "alcohol addiction" by a qualified psychiatrist or clinical psychologist. The Ss in the IA "diagnostic category" had a mean age of 46.22 years, a mean level of education of 10.38 years, and an average yearly income of \$6,423.00. Of this group, two Ss were single, eight were divorced, five were married, two were separated and one S's wife was deceased. Most of the Ss in the IA sample were employed in skilled and unskilled occupations (see Appendix F). Because of certain testing difficulties, only eighteen of the twenty-two Ss in the IA sample were utilized for the purposes of the study.

The second group of Ss consisted of twelve male

volunteers who were members of the local chapter of Alcoholics Anonymous (AA). This sample had an average length of sobriety of 6.6 years, a mean age of 45.42 years, a mean level of education of 12.25 years, and an average yearly income of \$11,000.00. Of this group, eight Ss were married, three were divorced and one S's wife was deceased. The majority of Ss in the AA sample were employed in skilled occupations with only one or two exceptions (see Appendix F).

The third group of Ss was labeled "non-alcoholics (NA)" and consisted of fourteen male volunteers who were employed in a local post office branch and four employees in a local highway department maintenance garage. This sample of Ss had a mean age of 42.62 years, a mean level of education of 11.60 years, and an average yearly income of \$8,950.00. Of this group, twelve Ss were married, three were divorced, two were separated, and one S's wife was deceased. The majority of Ss in the NA group were employed in skilled and semi-skilled occupations (see Appendix F).

The rationale for the sole use of male Ss was the fact that all earlier research on p and sPower had been restricted to this sex. Therefore, the use of female Ss may have restricted the generalization of the results or unduly contaminated the data since the manifestation of pPower and sPower has not been studied in relation to the female personality. This presents interesting and worthwhile research possibilities.

### Test Instruments

For the purpose of the present study a Q sort technique was developed to provide a measure of the degree to which an individual manifests the constructs of pPower and sPower. Block (1961) has stated that there are no alternative guides in the literature for item selection for the Q sort technique other than those Stephenson (1953) has recommended. Stephenson (1953) recommends collecting all possible data within the chosen domain according to some operational criteria of the specifications of the universe of interest. The next step is to select at random from this pool of data a specified number of items to comprise the Q sort population. This procedure was approximated in selecting the initial item pool.

Items for the Q sort were selected from several sources. A survey of all existing literature on the characteristics of individuals who have been found to be high in the need for pPower and sPower was made. A copy of the Personal Behavior Questionnaire that McClelland and his associates developed to get at power-related activities as well as a summary chart of these activities provided additional information for the construction of the initial item pool. Certain items were selected from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the California Psychological Inventory and the Edward's Personal Preference Schedule for their appropriateness in measuring power-related personality constructs. From these sources a



total of 140 items were collected which comprised the initial item pool.

Once the pool of items had been constructed, a panel of four professional psychologists (Ph.D.'s in clinical, counseling, educational and social psychology) were provided a brief paper summarizing the characteristics of individuals who have been found to manifest a high need for pPower or sPower (see Appendix E). Utilizing this paper and their own personal and professional knowledge of these constructs, they individually sorted the items, which were typed on individual 1" x 2" cards, into three groups: those items that they thought were good indicators of a pPower need, those items indicative of sPower need, and those items which did not provide a measure of either p or sPower need. If an item was selected as being a good indicator of pPower or sPower need by any three of the four professionals, it was retained for possible inclusion on the Q sort instrument. This procedure fulfilled the requirements for establishing content validity as described by Anastasi (1968). The content expert rating resulted in the retention of 64 pPower items and 42 sPower items (see Appendix A).

Considerable attention has been directed toward the influence of the social desirability (ScD) factor in the use of the Q sort technique (Edwards, 1957, 1970; Edwards & Horst, 1953; Block, 1961; Kleinmuntz, 1967). Edwards (1957) relates that it is reasonable to assume differences

in the degree of social desirability of the statements referring to personality variables utilized in a Q sort technique study. Thus, items which possess a high social desirability will be placed in the Q sort distribution in those columns with the higher weights such as 9, 10 or 11. Those items with lower social desirability values will be generally placed in the least descriptive categories and assigned the concomitant lower weighted values. There is, of course, variability in the degree to which persons will perceive any one item as socially desirable.

Edwards (1957, 1970) has recommended three methods of minimizing the effects of the ScD variable in studies utilizing the Q sort technique. One of these methods is to obtain the social desirability scale value (ScDSV) of each item, utilizing the method of successive intervals, and include only those items of approximately equivalent value. Thus each item is comparable to every other item in regard to its ScDSV which minimizes the tendency for an individual to describe himself in terms of desirable traits or personality variables. A second method for accounting for the effect of social desirability is to balance each item with an item of equivalent social desirability scale value with respect to the variable being investigated. Again the method of successive intervals would be utilized in determining the ScDSV of each item (Edwards, 1957, 1970). A third method of controlling for the social desirability factor consists of directing a group of Ss to sort the

Q sort items in terms of social desirability, i.e., sort the cards into piles, each pile representing grades of socially desirable persons. The average rating assigned to each statement by these Ss would then be used to obtain a composite Q sort score of social desirability. This composite Q sort rating of social desirability would then be correlated with the composite Q sort rating for each individual or group being investigated. The individual differences in correlation coefficients would then be regarded as scores corresponding to individual and group differences in the rate of responding in terms of the social desirability factor. Thus, if there was found a high correlation between a group's composite Q sort and a composite social desirability Q sort one might hypothesize the influence of social desirability responding by that group. Such correlations must be considered in the interpretation of the findings of the study thus accounting to a certain degree for the effects of the social desirability variable. Edwards (1957) has indicated that a large number of Ss is not required in determining the social desirability scale values mentioned in these three methods.

The first method discussed for controlling the influence of the social desirability factor was the one utilized in the present study. The reason for the selection of this method was because of its ability to minimize the influence of the social desirability factor. The use of the third method would only have served to

account for ScD responding but would not have controlled for this source of influence in the Ss responses to the items. A group of 10 male Ss who were employed as skilled and unskilled laborers in a local manufacturing plant were utilized for the purposes of obtaining the social desirability scale value for each of the initial 140 items. Each item was rated along a seven-point scale from "highly undesirable" to "highly desirable" according to the method of successive intervals (see Appendix C). Those items which obtained a mean social desirability scale value of from 3 to 5 were retained for inclusion on the Q sort. This range of acceptability, 3 through 5, was set in order to retain as many items as reasonably possible out of the original 140 item pool. An effort was made to select those items closest to a mean ScDSV of 4 to more adequately control for the social desirability factor in a S's response. This ScD rating resulted in the retention of 42 pPower items and 30 sPower items. Some of these retained items were then dropped because of similarity in content to other items or a ScDSV close to 3 or 5.

The final form of the Q sort consisted of fifty items, each typed on an individual 1" x 2" card (see Appendix G). Twenty-five of the items were pPower items and twenty-five were sPower items. Since the sample consisted of a minimum of two kinds of items with an equal number of each type of item, it was classified as a simple "structured sample" (Edwards, 1957, 1970).

The test-retest reliability of the Q sort instrument was obtained by administering it to a group of forty-two students enrolled in an industrial psychology course with a two week intervening interval. Block (1961) has stated that memory of previous Q sorting does not appear to be an important factor which would act to falsely elevate test-retest reliabilities, as the number of Q items and possible placement positions exceeds one's general capacity for memory. It is his feeling that a Q sort's consistency over time is more related to an equivalent expression of the subject's unchanged self-concept on separate occasions. A test-retest reliability coefficient of .66 was obtained utilizing the procedure and formula provided by Nunnally (1959). This was considered to be acceptable for the purpose of the present study.

Each S's task on the devised Q sort is to sort the fifty items into eleven piles or ranks according to the standardized directions (see Appendix C). Weights or scores are assigned to each pile and consequently to the statements within that pile. Since eleven ranks are used, the statement placed in the pile a S feels to be the least descriptive of him is given a weight of 1 and the statement most descriptive of him is given a weight of 11. The other nine ranks are assigned the successive integers between 1 and 11 and the statements placed in these positions receive the commensurate weights. There are two positions with reference to the form that the distribution

the Q sort items should take. Block (1961) has provided an excellent summary of the arguments and observations related to the use of the forced choice normal distribution of Q items as opposed to an unstructured or freely evolving distribution. The majority of evidence points toward the use of the forced normal distribution. Consequently it was decided to use an eleven column forced choice normal distribution with the number of items per column or pile being 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 7, 5, 4, 3, 1 from left to right (see Appendix D). Each item receives the weight of the number of the column in which it is placed.

#### Procedure

Each group of Ss was administered the Q sort according to the standardized directions (see Appendix C). Each S was given a copy of the directions and the directions were read aloud with a brief period for answering any questions allotted directly afterward.

Ss comprising the inpatient alcoholic (IA) "diagnostic category" were tested in two groups of eleven in a conference room on a ward of the state mental hospital in which they were undergoing treatment. Every effort was made to assure adequate heating, ventilation and lighting. After the standardized instructions had been read, and a brief pause was taken to allow for any clarification the Ss needed, the E directed the Ss to begin on the Q sort. The E remained in the testing room at all times to assist those Ss who encountered difficulty with the test. After

a S completed his Q sort he was checked by the E to make sure that he had followed the directions explicitly. After all Ss had finished their Q sort the E obtained a verbal commitment from each S to not mention the purpose of the experiment for at least one month. During this post-experiment discussion the E attempted to alleviate any anxiety or personal distress that the Ss might have experienced as a result of participating in the study. A brief questionnaire, printed on the Q sort record form, was administered to obtain basic information regarding socioeconomic status, age, level of education, occupation, and marital status. Each S was assured both before and after the testing session that his name would not be utilized in any way or even connected with the data once it had been collected. After all Ss had left the room the E recorded their sorts.

The Ss in the Alcoholics Anonymous "diagnostic category" were administered the Q sort in a group of seven and a group of five. Each group was tested at the apartment of a member where adequate table space, heating, ventilation and lighting were available. Testing was conducted in an official and businesslike manner to duplicate as nearly as possible the testing conditions for the inpatient alcoholic sample. The testing procedures were identical to those outlined above for the inpatient alcoholic "diagnostic category."

The post office employees who served as Ss in the

non-alcoholic "diagnostic category" were administered the Q sort in two groups of seven. The testing room was a large conference room which was frequently used for the administration of federal examinations and closely duplicated the conditions of the room in which the inpatient alcoholic group was tested. The testing procedures were identical to those outlined above for the other two "diagnostic categories."

The four highway department maintenance workers were tested in an office area free of any distractions by others. Again the testing procedures duplicated those outlined for all previous groups.

#### Scoring and analysis of the data

There appears to be somewhat of a controversy in the literature concerning the type of data yielded by the Q sort technique and the proper test of statistical significance to be utilized with the data. This controversy surrounds the issue of whether the Q sort yields data which is interval vs. ordinal. The resolution of this conflict determines what type of statistical tests are appropriate for comparison purposes, parametric or non-parametric methods.

Edwards (1957, 1970) describes the sorting task employed in the Q sort technique as requiring the S to sort descriptive statements into successive categories, a procedure which is characteristic to interval data. When utilizing a simple structured sample, such as the



one employed in the present investigation, Edwards (1970) suggests deriving a score for each personality variable represented in the Q sort item pool by obtaining the sum of the weights assigned to each item measuring a construct. Thus, one would have a sum of the weights for all twenty-five pPower items and a sum of the weights for all twenty-five sPower items for the purposes of the present study. For analysis of variance of the obtained scores for each single S as the parametric test of significance. Edwards' (1957, 1970) treatment of the above topic is secondary, though, to his main concern which is with the influence of the social desirability factor on the individual's response to the Q sort items.

Block (1961) regards the data yielded by the Q sort as being interval in nature, although he appears willing to recognize that there may be a certain degree of uncertainty surrounding the issue.

Kleinmuntz (1967) contends that the Q sort technique is a variant of the ranking method and thus, in agreement with Nunnally (1967), yields data which is ordinal in nature. The appropriate method of analysis for such data would be to obtain the median weight for the pPower items and the median weight for the sPower items for each S, and to apply the appropriate non-parametric test for significance (Kleinmuntz, 1967). If there is doubt as to the distribution of the Q values or scores for the Q sort items, Block (1961) recommends the use of non-parametric tests

as opposed to the hazardous violation of the parametric assumptions of a normally distributed population, independent observations, homogeneity of variance and interval scale measurement. When avoiding parametric assumptions, Block suggests application of the Mann-Whitney "U" test to the data for the two groups, and the use of the Kruskal-Wallis "H" test when more than two groups are being compared.

The Mann-Whitney "U" test was employed to assess the difference in median pPower and sPower scores between groups since it was desirable to avoid the risk of violation of parametric assumptions with the Q sort developed for the present investigation and the constructs under consideration. It was felt that the Mann-Whitney was the most appropriate non-parametric test available because of its power-efficiency, its relative freedom from the restrictive assumptions of parametric measures such as the t-test, and the relatively small sample sizes utilized (Siegel, 1956).

### Design

The three above-mentioned groups were employed to investigate the variables being considered. The dependent variable was the individual's median score for the pPower and sPower items on the Q sort. The levels of the independent variable were represented by the group of which the S was a member, or what was referred to as his "diagnostic category," i.e., AA, IA or NA.

## Results

### Comparison of median sPower scores of Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) and inpatient alcoholic (IA) samples

A comparison of the median sPower scores of the Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) and inpatient alcoholic (IA) "diagnostic categories" (see Table 1) yielded a value which was significant ( $U = 61$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ) for a one-tailed test (see Table 2). This indicated that Ss in the AA sample scored higher on the sPower construct than the IA sample utilizing the devised Q sort. It is thus concluded that individuals who have been rehabilitated through membership in Alcoholics Anonymous (mean period of sobriety of 6.6 years) were significantly higher in the manifestation of the need for socialized power than were active inpatient alcoholics who were in the initial "drying out" stages of rehabilitation from alcoholism.

### Comparison of median sPower scores of Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) and non-alcoholic (NA) samples

The comparison of the median sPower scores of the Ss in the AA and NA "diagnostic categories" yielded a value which was found to be significant ( $U = 64$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ) for a one-tailed test. These findings indicated that the AA Ss were significantly higher in the need for socialized power than the sample of non-alcoholics.



Table 2

Obtained "U" Values for Between  
Group Comparisons of sPower Scores

Group Comparison	N	Value of "U"
Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) vs. Inpatient Alcoholic (IA)	12 18	61**
Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) vs. Non-alcoholics (NA)	12 18	64*
Inpatient Alcoholic (IA) vs. Non-alcoholic (NA)	18 18	162

\*significant at  $p \leq .05$  for a one-tailed test.

\*\*significant at  $p \leq .025$  for a one-tailed test.

Comparison of Median sPower scores of inpatient alcoholic (IA) and non-alcoholic (NA) samples

The value obtained in the comparison of the median sPower scores of the inpatient alcoholic (IA) and non-alcoholic (NA) samples (see Table 2) was not found to be significant at the predetermined level ( $U = 162, p > .05$ ). This would indicate that the Inpatient Alcoholic (IA) sample was not significantly higher in socialized power concerns than the sample of Non-alcoholics (NA).

Comparison of median pPower scores of inpatient alcoholic (IA) and non-alcoholic (NA) samples

The comparison of the median pPower scores of the IA and NA samples (see Table 3) yielded a value which was significant ( $U = 106.5, p \leq .05$ ) for a one-tailed test. This indicated that the Ss in the IA "diagnostic category" scored significantly higher on the pPower construct than those Ss in the NA "diagnostic category." The conclusion is that those persons who had most recently been active alcoholics, i.e., the IA sample, were significantly higher in the manifestation of the need for personalized power than Non-alcoholics.

Comparison of median pPower scores of inpatient alcoholic (IA) and Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) samples

A comparison of the median pPower scores of the Ss in the IA and AA "diagnostic categories" (see Table 3) yielded a value which was found to be significant ( $U = 60.5, p \leq .05$ ) for a one-tailed test. These findings indicated that

Table 3

Obtained "U" Values for Between  
Group Comparisons of pPower Scores

Group Comparison	N	Value of "U"
Inpatient Alcoholic (IA) vs. Non-alcoholic (NA)	18 18	106.5*
Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) vs. Non-alcoholic (NA)	12 18	103.5
Inpatient Alcoholic (IA) vs. Alcoholics Anonymous (AA)	18 12	60.5**

\*significant at  $p \leq .05$  for a one-tailed test.

\*\*significant at  $p \leq .025$  for a one-tailed test.

the IA Ss were significantly higher in their level of personalized power concern than were the Ss in the AA "diagnostic category."

Comparison of median pPower scores of Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) and non-alcoholic (NA) samples

The value obtained in the comparison of the median pPower scores of the AA and NA samples (see Table 3) was not found to be significant at the predetermined level ( $U = 103.5$ ,  $p > .05$ ). This would indicate that the Ss in the AA "diagnostic category" were not significantly higher in personalized power concerns than the sample of non-alcoholics utilized in this investigation.

The analyses thus far have shown that the AA group was significantly higher in sPower concerns than either the IA group or the NA group. The sPower concerns of the IA group did not differ significantly from that of the NA group.

The IA group was significantly higher in pPower concerns than either the AA group or the NA group. The NA group and the AA group did not show a significant difference on the pPower rating.

Comparison of median pPower and sPower scores of the Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) sample

A comparison of the median pPower and sPower scores of the AA "diagnostic category" (see Table 4) yielded a value which was significant ( $U = 22$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ) for a one-tailed test. This finding indicated that the AA Ss were



Table 4

Obtained "U" Values for Within Group  
Comparison of pPower and sPower Scores

Group	N	Value of "U"
Inpatient Alcoholic (IA)	18	134
Alcoholics Anonymous (AA)	12	22***
Non-alcoholic (NA)	18	94**

\*\*significant at  $p \leq .025$  for a one-tailed test.

\*\*\*significant at  $p \leq .01$  for a one-tailed test.

significantly higher in the need for socialized power than they were in the need for personalized power.

Comparison of median pPower and sPower scores of the inpatient alcoholic (IA) sample

The value obtained in the comparison of the median pPower and sPower scores of the inpatient alcoholic (IA) sample was not significant ( $U = 134$ ,  $p > .05$ ). This would indicate that the Ss in the IA sample were not significantly higher in the need for personalized power than they were in the need for socialized power, or vice versa.

Comparison of median pPower and sPower scores of the non-alcoholic (NA) sample

The comparison of the median pPower and sPower scores of the NA sample yielded a value which was found to be significant ( $U = 94$ ,  $p \leq .05$ ) for a one-tailed test. This finding would indicate that the NA Ss were significantly higher in the level of socialized power concerns than they were in the need for more personalized forms of power.

The AA group showed a significantly greater concern for sPower over pPower, and the NA group also showed a significantly greater concern for sPower over pPower. The IA group showed no significant difference between sPower and pPower concerns.

## Discussion

### Comparison of median sPower scores for the three "diagnostic categories"

The statistical comparison of the data obtained from the AA and IA samples yielded results that were quite consistent with the current literature, but caution is warranted in its interpretation. The finding that Alcoholics Anonymous members (AA) were significantly higher in sPower need than active alcoholics (IA) may be confounded by certain uncontrollable variables. One explanation may be that individuals who remain in AA for a protracted period of time may have higher sPower scores to begin with than other alcoholics. It is also possible that those Ss who are members of AA and volunteer for psychological research are higher in sPower concerns than AA members who would not give of their time for such an investigation.

As noted earlier in this study, McClelland (1971, 1972) has hypothesized that Alcoholics Anonymous rehabilitates the alcoholic by means of socializing the individual's high personalized power needs. The finding that the AA sample was higher in sPower need than the IA sample would appear to support McClelland's speculation although caution is advised in considering this interpretation. Whether such influence is explainable through behavioral or

learning theory means (Ullman & Krasner, 1969; London & Rosenhan, 1968) or via McClelland's (1953) model of motive acquisition may be determined through further analysis.

The finding that Alcoholics Anonymous members of long-term sobriety were significantly higher in socialized power concerns than non-alcoholics appears to be the first such indication in the literature. This would indicate that the alcoholic may tend to overcompensate or rechannel in the direction of an extreme socialized power concern in his attempt to struggle to overcome his strong need for personalized power. The strong personal commitment that must be made, the active participation in numerous closed and open meetings, and the almost total immersion into the personal lives of other alcoholics would all appear to support the level of overcompensation indicated in this investigation.

The finding that the Inpatient Alcoholic sample was not significantly higher in level of socialized power concerns than the sample of Non-alcoholics would appear to concur with the current literature. One conclusion is that the active alcoholic does not necessarily manifest a lack of social concern, but that this concern is greatly overshadowed by his high need for personalized power. It might have been hypothesized that the IA sample would have scored significantly lower in sPower need than the NA sample, indicating that active alcoholics are deficient in social concern. The data do not support such a hypothesis.

Although the Ss in the IA sample had only been enrolled in the rehabilitation program a short period of time, it is possible that the social milieu of the hospital ward may have had some influence upon the groups' responses in the direction of elevating their sPower scores.

Findings, such as those obtained in the present investigation, would suggest that more effective and efficient methods of therapy may be developed for application with the alcoholic client, with the explicit goal of the socialization of the alcoholic's high level of personalized power concern. McClelland (1971, 1972) and his associates have attempted to do just this by applying their findings to the development of new methods of therapy for alcoholics. Basically, they attempt to direct the alcoholic's personalized power drives along more socialized lines by demonstrating to these individuals the association between their heavy drinking and their strong need for power. One technique involved in this approach consists of having the patients code their own TAT stories which were written during various levels of intoxication. Theoretically, such activity may provide the patient with insight into his pathological need for personalized power since he observes concrete evidence of the changes alcohol exerts in his fantasies.

It may also be of value to systematically apply those procedures which are found to be most successful in Alcoholics Anonymous to behavioral group therapy procedures.

Such an integration would appear to make the most efficient utilization of both approaches and to directly approach the socialization of the client's high pPower need.

Implications from these findings can be drawn with reference to certain social problems. It would appear that the systematic cultivation of socialized power concerns may serve to decrease the amount of manifest aggression and competition which threatens mans' very existence. Thus the development of methods of instilling and arousing sPower motivation in others may serve to reduce certain individuals' need to enhance their personalized power needs through the abuse of alcohol.

Comparison of median pPower scores for the three "diagnostic categories"

McClelland's (1966, 1966a, 1970, 1971, 1972) earlier findings that the alcoholic manifests a higher need for more personalized forms of power over others than does the non-alcoholic appear to have been supported by the results of the comparison of the IA and NA "diagnostic categories." In the present study it was found that those individuals who had most recently been active alcoholics, i.e., the IA sample, were significantly higher in the manifestation of the need for personalized power than a group of non-alcoholics. Such replication with a different test instrument, i.e., the devised Q sort, and different samples should serve to strengthen any decision to generalize from the obtained results.

It was also found that Ss in the IA sample were significantly higher in the level of personalized power concern than the Ss in the AA sample. This would appear to be in agreement with what one would expect from all previous findings on the relationship between pPower need and alcohol abuse.

A significant difference was not found to exist between the Ss in the Alcoholics Anonymous "diagnostic category" and the Non-alcoholic sample on the personalized construct. Such a finding is in agreement with the expectations from previous research and implies that membership in Alcoholics Anonymous may decrease the alcoholic's level of manifestation of personalized power concern to a more acceptable level. This modified level of pPower need appears to be more similar to non-alcoholics and may accompany a corresponding increase in the individual's concern for socialized power.

Comparison of median pPower and sPower scores for the three "diagnostic categories"

In the comparison of the median pPower and sPower scores of the AA sample, the finding that these Ss were significantly higher in sPower concern would appear consistent with the current literature. It would appear to be expected that Alcoholics Anonymous members would be more concerned with social power than with personal power as a result of the hypothesized socializing effects of membership in the organization mentioned earlier (McClelland,

1971, 1972; Ullman & Krasner, 1968; London & Rosenhan, 1969). Again caution is advised in the interpretation of such findings since they may possibly be due to special selective factors which are characteristic to long term AA members rather than actual therapeutic influence.

The finding that the Non-alcoholic sample was significantly higher in sPower than in pPower need would appear to be the first such indication in the literature. It might be concluded that while non-alcoholics are more concerned with socialized forms of power than they are with personalized forms, they are not as concerned about their sPower impact as are Alcoholics Anonymous members.

Somewhat contrary to the expected outcome was the finding that there was no significant difference in the level of pPower and sPower need among the Inpatient Alcoholic Ss. Although this finding is somewhat difficult to explain it is believed to have been a result of the limitations of the devised Q sort instrument. The fact that only those items found to have acceptable social desirability scale values were included on the Q sort may have tended to restrict the range of items comprising the measure of the constructs and to eliminate the adequate representation of relevant behavioral domains. Certain items, because of the very nature of the construct they purported to measure, i.e., need for pPower, were of extreme social desirability value. If such was the case, the sPower items on the Q sort may have represented a more



adequate sampling of the universe of interest and resulted in a general elevation of the median sPower scores in relation to pPower scores. The possibility of such an influence should be taken into account in the interpretation of the results.

#### Implications for further research

The results of the present investigation suggest several opportunities for further study. It appears that a replication of this study is warranted in order to further substantiate the results found in the present investigation. It is suggested that a larger sample size be employed in any replication in order to give more weight to the findings. An investigation of the same populations with a different instrument, such as McClelland's projective technique, may also serve to add further verification to the findings of the present study.

The current findings pose an interesting situation. We have substantiated McClelland's (1971; 1972) hypothesis that membership in AA socializes the alcoholic's personalized power need, but of what value is such knowledge to an organization which has been experiencing success for decades without such revealing analysis of its influence? Research into the methods of influence utilized in AA sessions may serve to identify and discriminate those aspects of the group interaction and experience which are actually therapeutic, i.e., that lead to an increase in sPower concern and a decrease in pPower concern. Such

information, if appropriately applied, may serve to heighten the effectiveness of Alcoholics Anonymous in rehabilitating the alcoholic. These findings may also be applied to other methods of group and individual therapy for use with the alcoholic client. The merit of such integration must be submitted to careful clinical investigation to assess its effectiveness in relation to previous forms of influence.

Alcoholism is one of the nation's most severe social problems and causes untold amounts of personal suffering and financial burden. As a result of the repeatedly demonstrated relationship between the need for personalized power and the abuse of alcohol, the measurement of this construct may become one of the most valuable predictors of potential alcohol abuse. Longitudinal studies of the predictive ability of various measures of pPower need appear warranted in the hopes of filling the psychometric gap associated with prediction of alcoholism.

## References

- Adler, A. (Collected Writings) In H. L. Ansbacher & R. R. Ansbacher (Eds.), The Individual Psychology of Alfred Adler. New York: Basic Books, 1956.
- Adler, A. Practice and Theory of Individual Psychology. Patterson, New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams, 1959.
- Adler, A. The psychology of power. Journal of Individual Psychology, 1966, 22, 166 - 172.
- Adler, A. (Collected Writings) In H. L. Ansbacher & R. R. Ansbacher (Eds.), Superiority and Social Interest: A Collection of Later Writings. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press, 1964.
- Adler, A. Understanding Human Nature. Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett, 1954.
- Allen, L. R. & Dootjes, I. Some personality considerations of an alcoholic population. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1968, 27, 707 - 712.
- Anastasi, Anne. Psychological Testing. (3rd ed.) New York: Macmillan, 1968. Bacon, M. K., Barry, H., Child, I. L. and Snyder, C. R. A cross-cultural study of drinking: V.

detailed definitions and data. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 1965, 26, 78 - 111.

Bandura, A. & Walters, R. H. Social Learning and Personality Development. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.

Block, Jack. The Q Sort Method in Personality Assessment and Psychiatric Research. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1961.

Buss, A. The Psychology of Aggression. New York: Wiley, 1961.

Dreikurs, R. Fundamentals of Adlerian Psychology. Chicago: Alfred Adler Institute, 1953.

Edwards, Allen L. Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1953.

Edwards, Allen L. The Measurement of Personality Traits by Scales and Inventories. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970.

Edwards, Allen L. The Social Desirability Method in Personality Assessment and Research. New York: Dryden Press, 1957.

Edwards, Allen L. & Horst, P. Social desirability as a variable in Q technique studies. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1953, 13, 620 - 625.

- Fenichel, O. The Psychoanalytic Theory of Neuroses. New York: Norton, 1945.
- Fitzgerald, B. J.; Paserwark, R. A. & Tanner, C. E. Use of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule with hospitalized alcoholics. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1967, 23, 194 - 195.
- Freud, S. Civilization and its Discontents. New York: Norton, 1961.
- Gough, H. California Psychological Inventory. Los Angeles: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1956.
- Hall, G. S. A Primer of Freudian Psychology. New York: World Publishing Company, 1954.
- Hall, G. S. & Lindsey, G. Theories of Personality. (2nd ed.) New York: Wiley, 1970.
- Hathaway, S. & McKinley, J. Booklet for the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1943.
- Horney, Karen. Our Inner Conflicts. New York: Norton, 1945.
- Horney, Karen. The Neurotic Personality of Our Time, New York: Norton, 1937.
- Horton, D. The functions of alcohol in primitive societies:

- a cross-cultural study. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 1943, 4, 199 - 320.
- Hoyt, D. P. & Sedlacek, G. M. Differentiating Alcoholics from normals and abnormals with the MMPI. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1958, 14, 69 - 74.
- Kleinmuntz, B. Personality Measurement: An Introduction. Homewood, Illinois: Forsey Press, 1967.
- Lawlis, G. F. & Rubin, S. C. 16 P-F study on personality patterns in alcoholics. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 1971, 32, 318 - 327.
- London, P. & Rosenhan, D. Foundations of Abnormal Psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968.
- MacAndrew, Craig. The differentiation of male alcoholic outpatients from nonalcoholic outpatients by means of the MMPI. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 1965, 26, 238 - 246.
- MacAndrew, Craig & Geertsma, Robert H. An analysis of responses of alcoholics to scale 4 of the MMPI. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 1963, 24, 23 - 38.
- McClelland, D. L. The two faces of power. Journal of International Affairs, 1970, 24, 29 - 47.
- McClelland, D. L. The power of positive drinking. Psychology Today, 1971, January, 40 - 41, 78 - 79.

- McClelland, D. L.; Atkinson, J. W.; Clark, R. A. & Lowell, E. L. The Achievement Motive. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953.
- McClelland, D. L.; Davis, W.; Wanner, E. & Kalin, R. A cross-cultural study of folk-tale content and drinking. Sociometry, 1966, 29, 308 - 333.
- McClelland, D. L.; Davis, W.; Wanner, E. & Kalin, R. The Drinking Man. New York: Free Press, 1972.
- McClelland, D. L.; Kalin, R. & Davis, W. N. The relationship between use of alcohol and thematic content of folk-tales in societies. In P. J. Stone; D. C. Cunphy; M. S. Smith & D. M. Ogilvie. The General Inquirer: A Computer Approach to Content Analysis. Cambridge: MIT Press, 1966a, Pp. 569 - 589.
- McCourt, W. F.; Schneider, L. & Williams, A. Personality self-descriptions of alcoholics and heavy drinkers. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol. 1971, 32, 310 - 317.
- Nunnally, Jum, C. Tests and Measurements. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.
- Nunnally, Jum, C. Psychometric Theory. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.
- Reiter, Henry H. Note on some personality differences

- between heavy and light drinkers. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1970, 30, 762.
- Siegel, S. Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Scientist. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956.
- Skinner, B. F. Science and Human Behavior. New York: Free Press, 1953.
- Stephenson, W. The Study of Behavior. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953.
- Storrs, A. Human Aggression. New York: Atheneum, 1968.
- Syme, L. Personality characteristics and the alcoholic; a critique of current studies. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 1957, 18, 288 - 302.
- Thompson, G. N. Alcoholism. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1956.
- Ullman, L. & Krasner, L. A Psychological Approach to Abnormal Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1969.
- Winter, D. G. Power motivation in thought and action. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, 1967.



## Appendix A

Panel Endorsements,  
Mean Q Sort Rating &  
Social Desirability Scale Values  
for Original Item Pool

Item	Panel Endorsements	nPower measured	Included on Q sort	Social Desir- ability Scale Value #1*	Social Desir- ability Scale Value #2**	Social Desir- ability Scale Value #3***	Mean IA Q sort Rating	Mean AA Q sort Rating	Mean NA Q sort Rating
I have always thought that I would like to be a Peace Corps Worker.	3	s		5.25	4.0	5.6			
At some time during my life I hope to own a really sharp looking car.	4	p	(1)	4.75	6.27	4.0	5.83	5.50	5.39
I would rather hold an important political of- fice than be a champion boxer.	3	s		5.25	4.82	5.8			

\*The social desirability scale values in this column were obtained from a sample of ten skilled and unskilled workers in a manufacturing plant.

\*\*The social desirability scale values in this column were obtained from a sample of ten male undergraduate college students.

\*\*\*The social desirability scale values in this column were obtained from a sample of six female undergraduate college students.

I rather pride myself on the fact that I can hold my liquor better than most people

4

p

4.25 2.64 3.2

I thoroughly enjoy getting one-up on others.

4

p

2.38 3.18 3.2

I like to help others when they are in trouble.

4

s

6.13 5.82 6.2

I enjoy sharing things with my friends.

2

s

5.88 5.64 5.4

I often daydream about winning a fight for the sexual conquest of a woman.

4

p

3.25 4.0 2.8

I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.

4

s

(2)

4.88 5.18 6.6

6.17 7.58 6.67

When my wife (girlfriend) and I have a severe disagreement I will usually walk out.

4

p

(3)

3.12 2.64 2.6

6.17 6.17 5.67

I like to be able to come and go as I please.

3

p

(4)

4.25 6.54 5.0

7.94 8.00 7.58

I would be satisfied driving an average low-priced car.

1

s

5.25 4.18 4.8

I have always thought I would like to be a social worker.	4	s		4.38	3.82	5.8			
I like to be able to do things better than other people can.	4	p	(5)	4.38	5.54	4.6	6.67	6.67	6.33
I like to talk about what I have achieved.	4	p	(34)	4.38	3.72	3.2	6.89	5.25	5.83
To be perfectly honest, I enjoy scenes in movies where women are being raped.	4	p		2.38	2.64	2.2			
I like to be loyal to my friends.	3	s		6.63	6.36	7.0			
I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.	3	p	(12)	4.88	6.18	6.0	6.94	6.58	6.28
I like to belong to clubs and other organizations.	4	s	(25)	4.25	5.18	5.2	4.72	6.42	5.67
I like to play team games.	4	s	(35)	4.25	5.64	5.4	6.00	5.83	6.17
When I drink I like to have just a couple of social drinks.	3	s		5.12	4.82	4.4			
I feel that if I should make a decision, no one should question it.	4	p	(13)	3.38	4.0	3.0	6.17	4.33	4.83

I enjoy doing door-to-door political campaign work.	4	s		3.38	2.82	3.2			
I really like parties and get-togethers.	2	s		6.12	5.54	5.8			
I would like to belong to several clubs or lodges.	4	s		3.62	4.18	4.8			
I would like to own a bigger and more expensive house than any of my friends.	4	p	(23)	4.0	3.73	4.6	5.67	4.83	4.89
When I work on a committee I like to take charge of things.	3, 1	s, p		4.12	4.18	5.4			
I would like to be physically stronger than other men.	4	p	(36)	4.75	4.45	3.8	5.89	4.75	4.89
I have always thought I would like to be an Army officer.	4	p		4.5	3.09	2.2			
I don't mind paying taxes as it helps the community.	4	s	(37)	4.0	4.27	4.4	5.39	6.08	5.78
I think we should cut down on pollution at all costs to help the future generations.	4	s		6.25	5.73	5.6			
I feel that when the community makes a decision it is up to a person to									

carry it out even if he is against it.	4	s	(6)	4.38	4.27	4.8	6.17	5.50	6.28
I try to see what others think before I take a stand.	3	s	(22)	4.25	4.64	4.2	6.22	6.33	6.17
I usually take the responsibility for getting people introduced in a group.	4	s		5.12	4.27	5.0			
It is very important that I be regarded as physically attractive by the opposite sex.	4	p		5.38	5.0	5.2			
I have strong political opinions.	2	p		5.75	3.64	5.0			
I like to play practical jokes.	3	p	(39)	3.38	3.27	1.2	5.28	5.33	5.22
I feel like making fun of people who do things I regard as stupid.	4	p		2.38	2.54	1.6			
When appointed as the leader of a group, I feel unsure about using my powers.	4	s	(7)	4.0	3.73	2.4	6.28	6.25	6.17
I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.	3, 1	p, s		4.38	3.0	2.0			

I like to avoid responsibility and obligations.	1	p		1.5	2.73	1.2			
At times I feel like smashing things.	4	p	(8)	3.38	3.82	3.2	5.78	5.75	5.28
When I drink, I really like to "tie-one-on."	4	p		2.0	1.73	1.8			
My wife (girlfriend) and I agree a lot.	4	p		1.88	2.36	2.6			
I would like to be as capable and smart as others around me.	1	s		6.25	5.91	6.6			
I think I would make a good leader.	2, 1	p, s		5.5	4.73	5.8			
The way I act has a lot to do with the company I am in.	1	s		4.25	4.82	5.2			
I like to give advice to others.	2, 2	p, s		4.75	3.64	5.0			
I would enjoy having authority over other people.	4	p	(24)	4.88	4.36	5.0	5.22	5.92	5.33
I think one should try to get all he can grab in this world.	4	p		3.38	3.82	2.8			
I like hunting very much.	4	p		4.75	4.36	1.4			

I feel that friends are to help one another.	2	s		6.88	6.0	6.6			
I make friends as quickly as others.	2	s		6.38	5.64	5.2			
A person does not need to worry about other people if only he looks after himself.	2	p		3.25	2.91	2.2			
I like to give orders and get things going.	4	p	(9)	4.25	3.46	5.0	6.28	5.33	5.39
I usually ask people for advice.	3	s	(40)	3.38	4.18	4.4	7.17	6.67	6.94
I am not easily angered.	2	s		6.12	5.09	6.6			
I like to "show-off" at times.	4	p		3.88	3.27	3.4			
I would be described as "hot-headed."	4	p		1.25	2.54	2.4			
I often try to get my own way regardless of what others want.	4	p		1.25	2.82	1.8			
I am satisfied at being as successful as my friends.	2	s		3.88	3.91	3.6			
I am very community minded.	4	s	(10)	3.88	4.64	5.0	4.83	5.17	5.00



I will give up an activity if most others disagree with it.	3	s	(11)	3.62	4.18	4.6	5.44	6.17	5.78
I have used alcohol moderately, or not at all.	1	s		4.25	5.0	5.8			
I like to give others approval.	4	s	(50)	4.25	5.18	6.0	6.00	6.33	6.28
I like to be the center of attention.	3	p		3.88	4.0	3.8			
At times I feel like picking a fist fight with someone.	4	p		2.38	2.54	2.8			
I don't like to make up my mind on things unless I have talked with others first.	4	s	(41)	3.5	3.64	5.2	5.28	6.17	5.94
I get excited at the thought of being elected to a club or political office.	3	s	(27)	4.0	4.36	5.2	5.28	5.92	5.44
I would like to wear expensive clothes.	4	p	(28)	4.0	5.18	5.2	6.28	5.75	5.78
I often act on the spur of the moment without thinking.	2	p		2.25	3.91	4.0			
I think I would like to									

fight in a boxing match sometime.	3	p		2.75	3.36	2.4			
I would like to be on a rules committee of a club or organization.	2	s		5.25	4.18	4.2			
I spend a lot of time helping others get things done.	4	s	(14)	4.25	4.73	5.4	6.72	7.83	6.72
I have a bad temper, once I get angry.	4	p	(42)	3.62	3.73	2.0	6.78	6.33	6.28
I would like to be smarter than others around me.	3	p		5.38	4.54	4.6			
I feel that one should get ahead any way that is possible.	4	p		1.88	3.09	2.0			
I would like to be a soldier.	4	p	(15)	3.5	2.18	1.8	5.60	3.67	5.22
I like to know very im- portant and influential people.	4	p		5.75	5.0	4.4			
I have used alcohol excess- ively.	3	p		1.38	1.82	1.2			
I like to talk about my sex experiences.	4	p	(38)	3.12	1.82	1.2	5.00	4.67	4.83

I can make other people afraid of me.	4	p		1.75	2.46	2.2			
I like to make friends of people who may be useful to me.	4	p	(29)	4.25	4.27	2.2	7.39	5.67	6.72
It is important for me to win an argument.	4	p	(30)	4.25	3.54	2.6	4.89	5.67	5.00
I would like to be a policeman.	2, 2	p, s		4.25	3.54	2.2			
I like to poke fun at people.	2	p		1.88	2.46	1.2			
I like the feeling of "oneness" that one gets from being a member of a group or club.	4	s	(43)	3.88	4.27	4.8	4.89	7.75	6.17
I feel that to get others to do things you must find out what their wants are.	3, 1	p, s		5.12	5.18	3.8			
When with a woman I am usually thinking about sex.	2	p		4.62	4.09	2.6			
I like to predict how others will act in dif- ferent situations.	2	s		5.38	5.0	5.0			
I like to be able to per- suade and influence others.	2, 2	p, s		4.88	5.0	5.2			

I frequently daydream about sex.	2	p		4.12	4.27	5.2			
I like to take risks.	3	p		3.75	4.46	3.2			
I would like to be a psychiatrist.	2	s		4.62	3.27	6.0			
I feel that we are all in this world together and must work together.	3	s		6.75	5.54	6.8			
I enjoy getting behind the wheel of a fast and powerful car.	4	p	(16)	4.38	4.82	2.0	5.17	4.17	4.89
I feel that the purpose of a "union" is for the welfare of the worker.	4	s	(46)	4.12	4.73	5.6	6.06	6.25	5.44
I feel that others will take advantage of you if you give them the chance.	4	p	(31)	3.75	4.54	4.8	6.22	5.42	5.28
I think I would like a job where I can help other people.	4	s		6.5	5.18	6.4			
I would like to have a lot of expensive things.	4	p		4.62	4.73	5.0			
I like to read newspaper articles about crime.	3	p		3.5	3.54	3.8			

I like to help the neighborhood kids improve their sports skills.	4	s	(45)	4.38	5.36	5.2	6.06	6.50	6.72
If someone takes advantage of me I usually blast them.	4	p		4.5	3.82	2.8			
I get a bang out of playing with the kids in the neighborhood.	3	s		4.62	5.09	5.0			
I would like to own a really "hot", fast motorbike.	4	p		4.62	4.0	1.8			
I feel that a union should make sure that every person's opinion is heard.	4	s	(17)	4.38	5.64	6.2	6.28	7.33	6.78
I like to gamble.	4	p		3.12	3.82	2.2			
It really burns me up to see someone taking advantage of another person.	4	s		5.62	4.91	6.0			
I feel the purpose of a union is to keep management in line.	3	p	(19)	4.38	4.18	4.8	6.44	5.08	5.17
If we had a serious drainage problem in my neighborhood I would be willing to talk to the city council about it.	3	s		6.5	5.54	2.4			

I like to ask questions I know no one will be able to answer.	4	p		2.12	3.64	2.4			
I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.	4	p		2.0	3.54	2.4			
I like to form new friendships.	2	s		6.12	6.18	6.8			
I like to make as many friends as I can.	1	s		5.62	6.0	6.4			
I like to be very successful in things I undertake.	3, 1	p, s		6.62	6.18	6.6			
I like to have strong attachments with my friends.	3	s		5.62	6.18	6.4			
I like to share things with my friends.	2	s		6.12	6.0	6.0			
I like to observe how another person feels in a given situation.	2	s		5.75	5.27	6.2			
I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.	3	p	(49)	4.5	2.73	3.2	4.17	5.50	5.60
I like my friends to encourage me when I meet failure.	2	s		6.25	5.27	6.0			

When planning something, I like to get suggestions from other people whose opinions I respect.	4	s	(18)	4.25	5.82	6.4	6.17	7.33	6.44
I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.	3, 1	s, p	(32)	4.25	4.91	4.4	3.94	5.42	5.17
I like to be able to do things better than other people can.	3	p		4.75	5.36	5.0			
I like to help other people who are less for- tunate than I am.	4	s	(44)	4.75	5.09	6.2	7.78	8.83	7.17
I like to tell someone they have done a good job when I think they have.	4	s	(21)	4.25	5.82	6.4	6.33	7.67	6.17
I like to do things in my own way and without regard to what others may think.	3	p		2.75	3.46	2.6			
I like to have strong attachments with my friends.	2	s		5.75	6.0	6.4			
I like to think of the personalities of my friends and try to figure out what makes them as they are.	2	s		5.25	5.18	6.2			

I like to do things with my friends rather than by myself.	2	s		5.5	4.82	5.6			
When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.	4	p	(48)	4.25	4.18	4.6	5.22	4.67	5.28
I like to participate in groups in which there is close unity and friendship.	3	s		5.75	5.54	6.2			
I like to talk about sex and sex activities.	3	p		4.88	3.54	3.2			
I feel like getting back at someone who has insulted me.	4	p		3.88	3.64	3.0			
I like to be one of the leaders in the groups or unions I belong to.	2, 1	p, s		4.62	4.18	5.8			
I like to praise someone I admire.	4	s	(33)	4.25	5.54	6.2	6.67	7.67	6.33
I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.	4	p	(47)	3.88	3.91	2.6	6.56	4.92	5.00
I like my friends to confide in me and tell me their troubles.	3	s	(26)	4.62	4.91	5.2	6.33	8.25	7.39



People usually respond to me when I lead them.	2, 1	p, s		5.88	4.73	5.8			
I like to put myself in someone else's place and imagine how I would feel in the same situation.	4	s	(20)	4.25	5.64	6.0	6.22	7.75	6.67
I like to be the center of attention in a group.	3	p		4.25	4.18	3.8			

## Appendix B

### Instructions for Social Desirability Rating

Below are a number of statements which represent certain attributes or characteristics an individual may possess. You are to read each statement and rate it on a seven-point scale as to how "desirable" or "undesirable" you feel this characteristic may be in an individual.

A rating of "1" would indicate that you feel that the attribute would be a "very undesirable" trait in a person. A rating of "7" would indicate that you feel that the characteristic would be a "very desirable" trait in a person. The numbers between "1" and "7" would indicate different degrees of "desirability" and "undesirability" of an attribute.

Circle the number which corresponds to the degree of "desirability" or "undesirability" which you feel each individual attribute possesses.

Very Undesirable (VU)		Slightly Undesirable (SU)		Slightly Desirable (SD)		Very Desirable (VD)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Undesirable (U)		Neither Desirable or Undesirable (N)			Desirable (D)	

Example:

A. I like to smoke at least a                    VU   U   SU   N   SD   D   VD  
      pack of cigarettes a day.                    1   2   ③   4   5   6   7

     This person felt that the attribute of smoking a pack  
      of cigarettes a day was "slightly undesirable".

B. I enjoy helping my friends                    VU   U   SU   N   SD   D   VD  
      with their problems.                    1   2   3   4   5   6   ⑦

     This person felt that the characteristic of helping  
      others with their problems was a "very desirable" trait.

## Appendix C

### Q Sort Directions

You are helping us in developing a test which will be used to help people understand themselves better. You are asked to be as honest as you can in taking this test as this is very important. Your name is not needed and will not be used at any time.

You have 50 cards, each with a statement on it that can be used to describe yourself or other people. You are to lay these cards on the cardboard chart in such a manner that they are in eleven columns, with the number of statements in a column the same as the number of spaces in that column on the chart. The statement that will go in the last column to the left is the one that you think describes you the least. The statement in the column to the extreme right will be the one that you think describes you the best. The other statements will distribute in the same manner in terms of how well they describe you. Before you finish, look over all the statements to make sure that as they go to the right they describe you better and better.

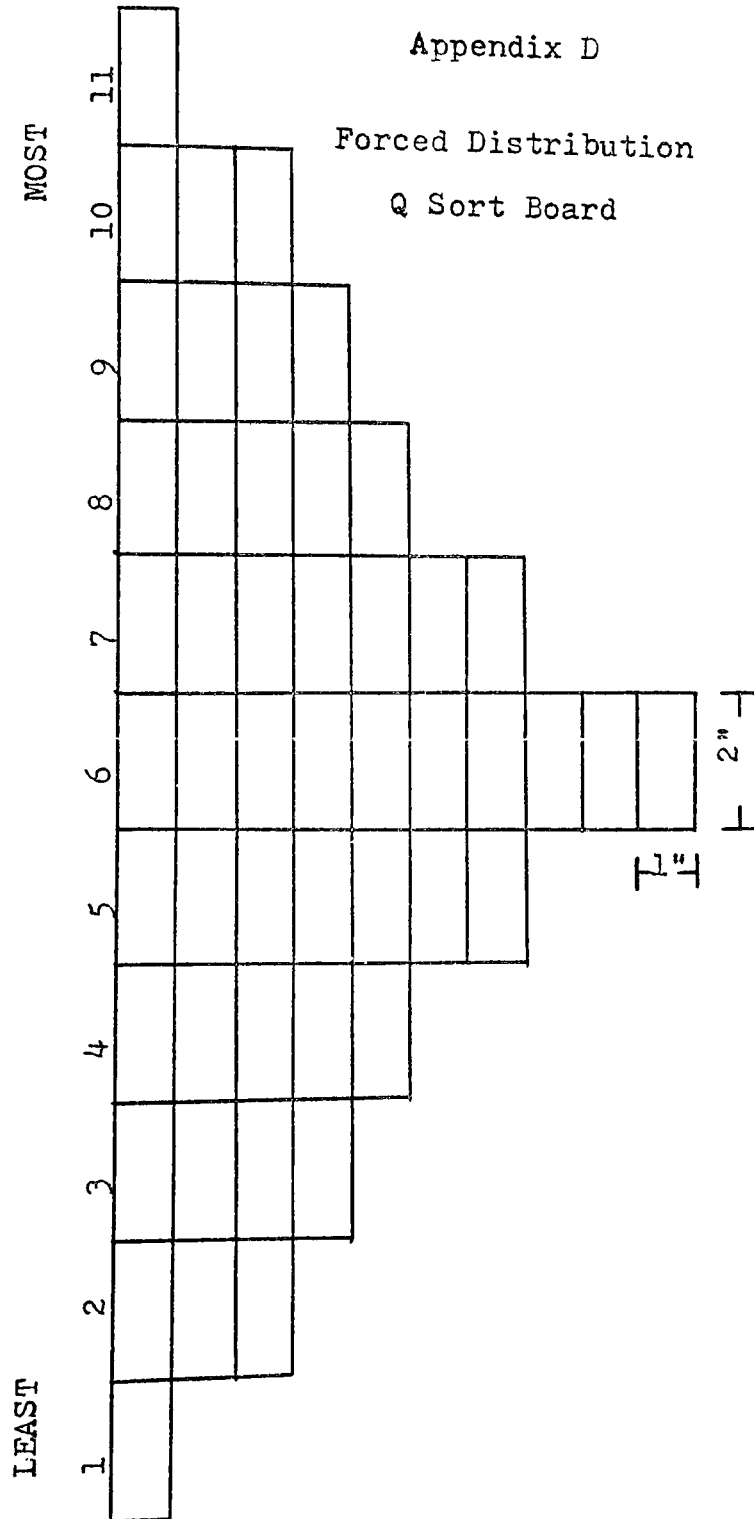
It may be helpful to first put the statements into three piles: those statements that you feel describe you the most, those statements that you feel describe you the

least, and those statements which you are unsure about.

After doing this, you can break these three groups of statements down into the columns on the cardboard chart.

If you have any questions please ask them at this time.

Your help is greatly appreciated!



## Appendix E

### Instructions and Summary Used in Establishing Content Validity of Q Sort Items

Your task is to sort the accompanying statements into three groups: (1) those statements which would appear to be "most descriptive" of an individual who manifests a high need for personalized power (pPower); (2) those statements which would appear to characterize an individual who manifests a high need for socialized power (sPower); and (3) those statements which do not appear to fit either of the two above categories.

You will utilize the accompanying summary of the characteristics which have been found to be associated with individuals manifesting a high need for pPower (personalized power) and sPower (socialized power) as your content criteria. After reading a statement on a card you should decide whether it best fits the criteria of an individual high in pPower need, sPower need, or is unrelated to these two personality variables. The summary provided you has been adapted from the research by McClelland (1970, 1971, 1966, 1966a) and his associates.

When you have completed sorting the statements according to the above criteria, place the group label

provided you on top of the pile, put rubber bands around the stacks and place all the materials in the envelope provided for this purpose. It is not necessary that the groups be equal in number. The group labeled "other" may contain few or even no items.

When you have completed the task you should record the following information at the bottom of this instruction sheet: your age, sex, degrees held, date degrees granted, degree-granting institutions, discipline which your degrees are in, and number of years of experience beyond your education.

The purpose of this study is to develop a Q sort technique which will attempt to assess the degree of manifestation of the personality attributes of pPower and sPower. This instrument will be used in a research study involving individuals who are skilled and unskilled workers. Your cooperation in this project is greatly appreciated and you will be notified of the findings of the study when they become available.



Summary of Characteristics of  
Persons Found to Manifest a High Need  
for pPower and sPower

McClelland (1970, 1971, 1966, 1966a) has recently investigated and postulated two disparate forms of what has previously been identified as the human need for power (nPower). One form or manifestation of this need for power is concerned with the need for personal dominance over others, or personalized power (pPower). The other form of nPower is manifested in the desire to have impact for the sake of others, or socialized power (sPower).

pPower

To elaborate further on this personality attribute of the need for personalized power, it may be of value to examine the characteristics which McClelland and his associates have found to typify the individual with high pPower needs. This individual seeks to have influence over others in fairly direct ways such as being domineering and seeking power and influence in order to exploit others. His power thoughts or behaviors may be aroused by putting him in a personal dominance situation in which he is threatened. His attitude may be one of, "if I win, you lose," or "I lose, if you win." This personal power concern is associated with heavy drinking, gambling, having

aggressive impulses, and collecting prestige supplies or objects. Such an individual is more apt to desire a fast and powerful car, to speed, to have accidents, get into physical fights, and engage in frequent sexual conquests. Such behaviors as yelling back at police officers or store clerks and walking out on one's wife may be common. He perceives the world in defensive terms and may often fantasize about conquering opponents. His direct approach to feeling powerful may manifest itself in a tendency to use others for one's own means according to a dominance-submission mode. High pPower need individuals may tend to enter occupations which accentuate power and influence such as becoming a military officer. Pathology may arise when the person's occupation and/or social-familial environment fails to accentuate his power feelings. Such an individual may thus engage in heavy drinking, i.e., become an alcoholic, in an effort to increase his feelings of personal power. Thus this more primitive face of power is manifested in strivings for dominance over others who must assume a submissive role. It leads to fairly simple direct means of feeling powerful -- drinking heavily, acquiring "prestige supplies," and being aggressive.

#### sPower

The more socialized form of nPower may be aroused by the possibility of an individual winning an election and may manifest itself in thoughts of exercising power for the benefit of others. The individual with a high sPower need

may exhibit feelings of greater ambivalence in regard to holding a position of power and influence with concomitant doubts of personal strength, the realization that most victories must be carefully planned in advance, and that every victory means a loss for someone. Persons concerned with the more socialized aspect of power join more organizations and are more apt to join in organized informal sports. A concern for group goals, for finding goals that will move men, for helping the group to formulate these goals, for taking some initiative in providing members of the group with the means of achieving such goals, and with exercising influence for others characterize the typical high sPower need individual. Such an individual is concerned with giving group members the feeling of strength and competence they need to work hard for such goals. This socialized need may lead to interests in politics and holding office, or other occupations concerned with group or social welfare.

## Appendix F

### Economic and Sociometric Data for the Diagnostic Categories

#### Inpatient alcoholic sample (IA)

n = 18

age . . . . .	.range (26-58 years) mean (46.22 years)
level of education . . . . .	.range (6-16 years) mean (10.38 years)
yearly income . . . . .	.range (\$2500-\$9000) average (\$6423)
marital status . . . . .	single- 2 divorced- 2 married- 5 separated- 2 wife deceased-1
occupation . . . . .	bricklayer- 1 farmer- 2 hvy. equip. oper.-1 painter- 4 stone mason- 1 truck driver- 2 oil lease writer- 1 mechanic- 1 auto salesman- 1 surveyor- 1 office worker- 1 factory worker- 1 unemployed- 1

#### Alcoholics Anonymous sample (AA)

n = 12

age . . . . .	.range (33-61 years) mean (45.42 years)
---------------	--

length of sobriety . . . . .	.range (2-25 years)	
	average (6.6 years)	
level of education . . . . .	.range (9-14 years)	
	mean (12.25 years)	
yearly income . . . . .	.range (\$6800-\$25000)	
	average (\$11000)	
marital status . . . . .	.single-	0
	divorced-	3
	married-	8
	separated-	0
	wife deceased-	1
occupation . . . . .	.professional	
	negotiator-	1
	men. hlth. paraprof.-	1
	printer-	1
	salesman-	2
	govt. employee	1
	meat processor-	1
	pipefitter-	1
	farmer-	2

Non-alcoholic sample (NA)

n = 18

age . . . . .	.range (27-57 years)	
	mean (42.62 years)	
level of education . . . . .	.range (8-16 years)	
	mean (11.60 years)	
yearly income . . . . .	.range (\$6100-\$9900)	
	average (\$8950)	
marital status . . . . .	.single-	0
	divorced-	3
	married-	12
	separated-	2
	wife deceased-	1
occupation . . . . .	.post office clerk-	12
	janitor (post	
	office)-	2
	mechanic and maint.	
	worker-	4

## Appendix G

### pPower and sPower Q Sort Items

#### pPower items

- (1) At some time during my life I hope to own a really sharp looking car.
- (3) When my wife (girlfriend) and I have a severe disagreement I will usually walk out.
- (4) I like to be able to come and go as I please.
- (5) I like to be able to do things better than other people can.
- (8) At times I feel like smashing things.
- (9) I like to give orders and get things going.
- (12) I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.
- (13) I feel that if I should make a decision, no one should question it.
- (15) I would like to be a soldier.
- (16) I enjoy getting behind the wheel of a fast and powerful car.
- (19) I feel that the purpose of a union is to keep management in line.
- (23) I would like to own a bigger and more expensive house than any of my friends.

- (24) I would enjoy having authority over other people.
- (28) I would like to wear expensive clothes.
- (29) I like to make friends of people who may be useful to me.
- (30) It is important for me to win an argument.
- (31) I feel that others will take advantage of you if you give them a chance.
- (34) I like to talk about what I have achieved.
- (36) I would like to be physically stronger than other men.
- (38) I like to talk about my sex experiences.
- (39) I like to play practical jokes.
- (42) I have a bad temper, once I get angry.
- (47) I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.
- (48) When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.
- (49) I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.

sPower items

- (2) I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.
- (6) I feel that when the community makes a decision it is up to a person to carry it out even if he is against it.
- (7) When appointed as the leader of a group, I feel unsure about using my powers.
- (10) I am very community-minded.

- (11) I will give up an activity if most others disagree with it.
- (14) I spend a lot of time helping others get things done.
- (17) I feel that a union should make sure that every person's opinion is heard.
- (18) When planning something, I like to get suggestions from other people whose opinions I respect.
- (20) I like to put myself in someone else's place and imagine how I would feel in the same situation.
- (21) I like to tell someone they have done a good job when I think they have.
- (22) I try to see what others think before I take a stand.
- (25) I like to belong to clubs and other organizations.
- (26) I like my friends to confide in me and tell me their troubles.
- (27) I get excited at the thought of being elected to a club or political office.
- (32) I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.
- (33) I like to praise someone I admire.
- (35) I like to play team games.
- (37) I don't mind paying taxes as it helps the community.
- (40) I usually ask people for advice.
- (41) I don't like to make up my mind on things unless I have talked with others first.
- (43) I like the feeling of "oneness" that one gets from being a member of a group or club.



- (44) I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.
- (45) I like to help the neighborhood kids improve their sports skills.
- (46) I feel that the purpose of a "union" is for the welfare of the worker.
- (50) I like to give others approval.